

On the flexibility of complex systems

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Many complex systems satisfy a set of constraints on their degrees of freedom, and at the same time, they are able to work and adapt to different conditions. Here, we describe the emergence of this ability in a simplified model in which the system must satisfy a set of random dense linear constraints. By statistical mechanics techniques, we describe the transition between a non-flexible system in which the constraints are not fully satisfied, to a flexible system, in which the constraints can be satisfied in many ways. This phase transition is described in terms of the appearance of zeros modes in the statistical mechanics problem.

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Much of the complexity of biological and social systems is rooted in their ability to function in a large variety of conditions. At the same time, complex systems must satisfy real constraints. For example, the metabolic network to function must, at least, satisfy the steady state equations of the intermediate metabolites production [1, 2], and a financial market to be efficient must have a zero excess demand for any distinguishable state of the market [3]. However, to preserve this flexibility, the constraints can not completely determine the state of the system. This will be fully defined by the external conditions, some optimization principle, and/or the previous history of the system.

In the case of metabolic networks, all steady states of fluxes $\{s\}$ are defined by the system $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{s} - \mathbf{g} = \mathbf{0}$ such that $0 \leq s_i \leq s_i^{max}$ are intervals that define a convex manifold Ω . The matrix \mathbf{A} in this problem is the $M \times N$ stoichiometric matrix of all the reaction in the network, with M metabolites and N metabolic fluxes, while the M dimensional vector \mathbf{g} is different from zero only for metabolites in input or in output to the network. The real state of the cell is required to be one of these steady states [1, 4]. In addition, it is usually assumed that the actual state optimizes the cell growth rate, but this assumption have to be relaxed in various cases [4].

This description of the problem is reminiscent of the Theory of Linear Programming [5], where one must optimize a linear function of unknown variables subject to linear constraints. Like in metabolic networks, the constraints define the space of possible solutions, while the optimization function, chooses a given one.

A similar problem appears in the study of the Minority Game (MG) [3, 6]. The Minority Game is a simple model that was proposed recently to mimic the dynamics of agents in a market. In one of the version of this game, the Gran Canonical Minority Game [7], the traders in the market, at each time step have access to an external information $\mu = 1, \dots, M$ which describes the market state. Each agent i is provided with a single strategy indicating which action (buy/sell) to take given the information μ , i.e. $a_i^\mu = \pm 1$. There are two types of

agents in the markets: N_s speculators that can decide to trade or not to trade depending on their expected success and N_p producers which always play their strategy. This game has been approached by statistical mechanics [6, 7] techniques and it has been proved that the dynamics described above minimizes the Lyapunov function $H = \sum_\mu \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_s} a_i^\mu s_i - B^\mu \right)^2 / M$. The soft variable $s_i \in (0, 1)$ corresponds to the average use of the strategy of agent i in the stationarity state of the game and $B^\mu = \sum_{i=N_s+1}^{N_s+N_p} a_i^\mu$ indicates the information injected by the producers in the market. Below a critical value of $\alpha = M/N$ the systems is efficient, i.e. it is such that the expected excess demand $\sum_{i=1}^{N_s} a_i^\mu s_i - B^\mu = 0$ for each information $\mu = 1, \dots, M$ and $H = 0$.

It becomes then transparent that a very important question in the study of complex systems is to know how flexible the system is, i.e. how large is the volume V of the possible solutions as a function of the parameters of the equations. In the examples described above, it is equivalent to find the number of steady states of the metabolic fluxes in a cell or the number of agent actions which clear a financial market.

Technically the problem can be cast in terms of finding the number of solutions of a linear system of equations when the variables are constrained in a connected finite volume Ω . Unfortunately, it is well known that the enumeration of all the vertex of the convex set containing these solutions is a $\#P$ complete problem [9]. In a more general context, the calculation of the volume of a complex polyhedron in the N dimensional space, in the so call H -representation (see for example [10]), is expressed by a set of M linear inequalities $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{s} \geq 0$, where \mathbf{A} is again a $M \times N$ matrix.

Similar constraint satisfaction problems have been successfully treated by statistical mechanics techniques. In the case of boolean variables it is known that there is a transition between satisfiable to unsatisfiable (SAT-UNSAT) instances as a function of the ratio α between the number of equations M and variables N . Through statistical mechanics methods it has been proven [11,

[12, 13] that in many *NP*-complete problems this SAT-UNSAT transition is preceded by a dynamical transition identified with the absence of a replica symmetric solution and with the clusterization of the phase space. On the contrary if the problem is defined on continuous variables, no general approach describing the transition is known. Usually, the solution of the volume of the satisfied space is found by imposing a spherical constraint on the variables [14]. However, as it has been recently shown in the Minority Game context [15], in many situations the spherical constrain generates a different scenario, and in addition, it is often not justified.

In this paper, using statistical mechanics methods, we describe, as a function of $\alpha = M/N$, the transition between satisfiable and unsatisfiable dense linear systems of equations defined on continuous variables. In fact it is intuitively clear that there is a specific value of α_c such that for $\alpha > \alpha_c$ the system is not able to satisfy all the constraints while for $\alpha < \alpha_c$ the system becomes satisfiable for different values of the variables. Here we determine the volume of the space of these solutions and the average values of the variables in term of their admitted values, and the statistical properties of the equations.

For simplicity, we will consider N variables and M equations with random coefficients ξ_i^μ chosen from a distribution $P(\xi)$ with zero average $\langle \xi \rangle = 0$ and with variance $\langle \xi^2 \rangle = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$. The system which we would like to be satisfied is

$$\sum_i \xi_i^\mu s_i - g^\mu = 0 \quad \forall \mu = 1, \dots, M. \quad (1)$$

where g^μ represents the inhomogeneities of the equations, i.e. for example the input or output fluxes in metabolic networks. The continuous variables variables $\{s_i\}$ would be defined over a set $\Omega = \omega^N$ with $s_i \in \omega$ and $|\omega| = L$. In the case of convex space Ω we would like to address which are the typical features of a generic problem with N variables and M equations for a generic matrix $((\xi_i^\mu))$.

Using a Gaussian representation for the delta functions $\prod_\mu \delta(\sum_i \xi_i^\mu s_i - g^\mu)$ imposed by the hard constraints (1) we get the following definition of the unnormalized volume of solutions

$$\tilde{V}(\beta) = \int_\Omega \prod_i ds_i \prod_\mu \frac{e^{-\beta(\sum_i \xi_i^\mu s_i - g^\mu)^2}}{\sqrt{\pi/\beta}}. \quad (2)$$

to be taken in the limit $\beta \rightarrow \infty$. Consequently we have introduced a Gaussian measure $f_0 = \prod_\mu e^{-\beta(\sum_i \xi_i^\mu s_i - g^\mu)^2} / ((\pi/\beta)^{M/2} \tilde{V}(\beta))$ in the space of the variables Ω .

This kind of problem, within the formalism of statistical physics, can be approached defining a Hamiltonian H to be minimized when the system is solved. For our case of interest H is given by

$$H = \sum_\mu \left(\sum_i \xi_i^\mu s_i - g^\mu \right)^2 \quad (3)$$

which is equivalent to the one defined in the study of the Minority Game [3].

For such a system the partition function reads

$$Z = \int_\Omega \prod_i ds_i \exp \left[-\beta \sum_\mu \left(\sum_i \xi_i^\mu s_i - g^\mu \right)^2 \right]. \quad (4)$$

and the entropy is given by

$$S = - \langle \log(f_0) \rangle = \beta E + \frac{M}{2} \log \left(\frac{\pi}{\beta} \right) + \log(\tilde{V}) \quad (5)$$

Thus our goal would be to evaluate the free energy of this system mediated over the quenched disorder $-\frac{1}{\beta} \langle \log(Z) \rangle = F = E - TS$, being E the energy and S the entropy of the system. Obviously, from our Hamiltonian (3), we must have, $E = 0$ for satisfiable systems and $E \neq 0$ for unsatisfiable systems.

The calculation of $\langle \log(Z) \rangle$ proceeds using the usual replica trick $\langle \log(Z) \rangle = \lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle Z^n \rangle - 1}{n}$ in which Z^n indicates the n times replicated partition function with the same quenched noise. Then, using a Replica Symmetric ansatz [16], and on similar lines to the analogous Hamiltonian of the Minority Game [3, 6] we obtain a result, which, extended to the limiting case $L \rightarrow \infty$, $\beta \rightarrow \infty$ (which is the Algebra limit) provides an energy $E/N = \frac{1}{2} \langle g^2 \rangle (\alpha - 1) + \frac{1}{2\beta}$ and an entropy $S/N = -\frac{\alpha}{2} \log \alpha + \frac{\alpha-1}{2} \log(\alpha - 1) + \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\frac{\pi e^2}{\sigma^2 \beta} \right)$. This solution is wrong for $\alpha < 1$. In fact the energy becomes negative, contradicting equation (3). Moreover for $\alpha < 1$ the entropy must acquire a term of the order of $N \log(L)$ that here is not present. This signals that the standard RS ansatz in the $L, \beta \rightarrow \infty$ fails for $\alpha < 1$.

In order to solve this problem, which arises also in the finite L case, we gain insight from the known algebra solution of the case $L \rightarrow \infty$. In this case the linear system of equations is solved first fixing, arbitrarily, $N - M$ variables and then solving respect to the others. Consequently, to solve the problem at finite L we assume that although all the variables are equivalent, below the satisfiable transition an arbitrary set of $(1 - m)N$ variables is free to assume any value $s_i \in \omega$ without fluctuations while the other mN variables can still satisfy the linear problem. Then, a new variational parameter m is introduced in the free energy and fixed through the saddle point equations. The constrained variables $i = 1, \dots, mN$ would have an overlap $Q_{a,b} = \langle s^a s^b \rangle$ and conjugated variables $\hat{Q}_{a,b}$ Replica Symmetric, i.e. $Q_{a,b} = Q \delta_{a,b} + q(1 - \delta_{a,b})$, $\hat{Q}_{a,b} = \hat{Q} \delta_{a,b} + \hat{q}(1 - \delta_{a,b})$. On the contrary the other $(1 - m)N$ variables would have and average $\sum_{i=mN}^N s_i^a = (1 - m)N S^a$, and an overlap $\sum_{i=mN}^N s_i^a s_i^b = (1 - m)N S^a S^b$. Where $S^a = S$ and $\hat{S}^a = \hat{S}$, keeping the RS scenario.

Using this ansatz the free energy reads,

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta f = & -(1-m)\hat{S}S - m(Q\hat{Q} - q\hat{q}) + \frac{\alpha}{2} \left[\frac{\frac{q^2}{\sigma^2 m} + q + \frac{1-m}{m}S^2}{Q - q + \frac{1}{2\beta\sigma^2 m}} + \ln \left(Q - q + \frac{1}{2\beta\sigma^2 m} \right) + \ln(2\beta\sigma^2 m) \right] \\
& - m \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2} \ln H_L(\hat{q}, \hat{Q}) - (1-m) \ln L - (1-m) \ln(I(\hat{S})) \tag{6}
\end{aligned}$$

and the saddle point equations become

$$\begin{aligned}
m\hat{q} &= -\frac{\alpha \frac{q^2}{\sigma^2 m} + q + \frac{1-m}{m}S^2}{2(Q - q + \frac{1}{2\beta\sigma^2 m})} \\
m(\hat{Q} - \hat{q}) &= \frac{\alpha}{2} \frac{1}{Q - q + \frac{1}{2\beta\sigma^2 m}} \\
Q &= \langle \langle s^2 \rangle \rangle \\
Q - q &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{-2\hat{q}}} \langle \langle ys \rangle \rangle \tag{7}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Dy \ln H_L(\hat{Q}, \hat{q}) = \ln(LI(\hat{S})) + S\hat{S} - (\hat{Q} - \hat{q})S^2$$

to be considered together with the two equations

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial S} &= 0 \text{ i.e. } \hat{S} = 2S(\hat{Q} - \hat{q}) \\
\frac{\partial f}{\partial \hat{S}} &= 0 \text{ i.e. } S = \langle s \rangle_{\hat{S}} \tag{8}
\end{aligned}$$

with $H_L(\hat{Q}, \hat{q}) = \int_{\omega} ds e^{W(s, y)}$, $W(s, y) = -(\hat{Q} - \hat{q})s^2 + \sqrt{-2\hat{q}}ys$, $I(\hat{S}) = \int_{\omega} ds e^{-\hat{S}s}/L$, $\langle s \rangle_{\hat{S}} = \int_{\omega} ds s e^{-\hat{S}s}/\int_{\omega} ds e^{-\hat{S}s}$ and finally $g^2 = \sum_{\mu} (g^{\mu})^2/M$.

If the interval ω is symmetric respect to zero, the solution $\hat{S} = S = 0$ is always allowed. When ω is not symmetric respect to zero it is always possible to translate the variables and to define the problem on a symmetric interval around zero. In this translation the variables change following $s_i \rightarrow s_i - x_0$ and the constrain following $g^{\mu} \rightarrow g^{\mu} + \sum_i a_i^{\mu} x_0$ ($g^2 \rightarrow g^2 + \sigma^2 x_0^2$) with x_0 indicating the center of mass of the interval ω . In the special case of the algebra limit, $L, \beta \rightarrow \infty$, this solution for $\alpha < 1$, predicts: the free energy $\beta f = -\frac{\alpha}{2} \log \left(\frac{\pi e}{\sigma^2 \beta} \right) - (1-\alpha) \ln L$, the energy $E/N = \frac{\alpha}{2\beta}$ and the entropy $S/N = \frac{\alpha}{2} \log \left(\frac{\pi e^2}{\sigma^2 \alpha \beta} \right) + (1-\alpha) \ln L$. Consequently for $\alpha < 1$ the system is satisfiable in the limit $\beta \rightarrow \infty$, in fact $E = \frac{\alpha}{2\beta} \rightarrow 0$ and the volume of solutions \tilde{V} given by $e^{\langle \log(\tilde{V}) \rangle} = L^{N-M} \left(\frac{e}{\alpha \sigma^2} \right)^{M/2}$ as it should since $\left(\frac{\alpha \sigma^2}{e} \right)^{M/2}$ is the determinant of a $M \times M$ matrix of coefficients ξ_i^{μ} with $\langle \xi \rangle = 0$ and variance $\langle \xi^2 \rangle = \sigma^2/N$ [17].

In the case in which ω is bounded and L finite, from (5) and (6), we have for the volume of solutions,

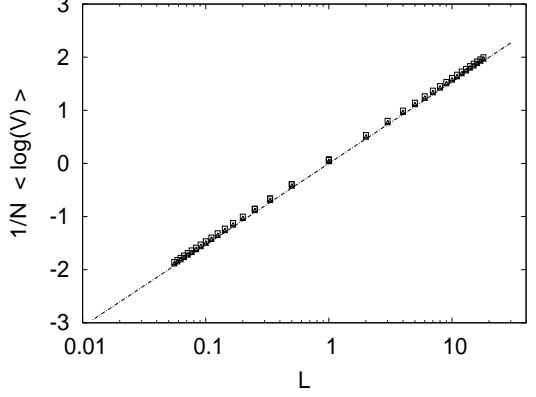


FIG. 1: The volume of solutions of a linear system of equations $\alpha = 1/3$. The continuous line corresponds to the theoretical prediction, and the symbols to the simulations with $N = 6$ (\square), $N = 9$ (\diamond).

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{N} \langle \ln \tilde{V} \rangle &= \ln L + m(Q\hat{Q} - q\hat{q}) - \frac{\alpha}{2} \frac{\frac{q^2}{\sigma^2 m} + q}{Q - q + \frac{1}{2\beta\sigma^2 m}} \\
&\quad - \frac{\alpha}{2} \ln \left[2\pi m \sigma^2 \left(Q - q + \frac{1}{2\beta\sigma^2 m} \right) \right]. \tag{9}
\end{aligned}$$

with the saddle point equations defining the value of the variational parameters. In this case, the saddle point equations (7) must be solved numerically and the validity of our ansatz may be tested with simulations.

On the other hand, to estimate the average values of the variables one must consider that while the equations (7), (8) allow for a solution with $m < 1$ the system is satisfiable and a series of $1-m$ zeros modes are present in the solution. These zero modes are associated to the freedom in which the $(1-m)N$ variables can be chosen. In this case, as a fraction $(1-m)$ of free variables can assume any value in the set ω the average value of the variables $\langle s \rangle$ for each realization of the system is not fixed by the value of α . Consequently the average value of the variables $\langle s \rangle$ and the second moment $\langle s^2 \rangle$ for a single realization of the system are described as $\bar{s} = m \langle \langle s \rangle \rangle_W + (1-m)s_0$ and $\bar{s^2} = m \langle \langle s^2 \rangle \rangle_W + (1-m)s_0^2$ where $\langle \langle \dots \rangle \rangle_W$ indicates the average of the constraint variables on the effective potential $W(s, y)$ and s_0 indicates the average value of the free variables in the considered realization.

We note here that the observable volume of solutions

V differs from \tilde{V} and is defined as

$$V(\beta) = \int_{\Omega} \prod_i ds_i \prod_{\mu} \frac{e^{-\beta(\sum_i \xi_i^{\mu} s_i - g_{\mu})^2}}{\sqrt{\pi/\beta}} \det \mathcal{R}(mN \times mN)$$

where \mathcal{R} is a square random matrix of mN elements and m is the fraction of constraint variables to be determined by saddle point equations. The direct calculation of $\langle \log(V) \rangle$ can be approximated very well with

$$\langle \log(V) \rangle \approx \langle \log(\tilde{V}) \rangle + \log[\det \mathcal{R}(mN \times mN)] \quad (10)$$

with m given by the solutions of (7) as we checked directly.

To test the calculations we compute numerically the volume of solutions of randomly generated linear equations and compared it with our theoretical predictions. As already mentioned in the introduction, finding the volume of a polytope is a $\#P$ -complete problem, therefore the direct calculation of the volume of solutions is restricted, in practice, to problems with a small number of equations and variables. To simplify the computations, the elements of the matrix A were taken as ± 1 with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ and $g^{\mu} = 0$. The variables were constrained to be in $(-L/2, L/2)$

The simulations were done using *vinci* [10] and the related *lrs* code [18], which shows reasonable performance in time for dense systems of no more than $M = 4$ equations and $N = 12$ variables. Moreover, one must keep in mind that the volume computed by *lrs* in these not full dimensional polytopes is the projection on the lexicographically smallest coordinate subspace[18]. For the matrices we used, this is equivalent to rescale the volume by a factor $N^{\frac{1}{2}}$ where N is the number of variables.

The comparison between the numerical results and our analytical predictions appear in figure 1 where we show the direct average over 100 instances of systems of equa-

tions with $N = 6$ and 9 variables and $\alpha = 1/3$ as a function of L . The analytical results were obtained through the substitution in equations (10) and (9) of the solutions of the system of equations (7) with $S = \hat{S} = 0$. As can be immediately seen, the agreement between our simulation and the theoretical line is very good. This, despite the fact that our predictions are valid in the thermodynamic limit and the simulations may be performed only for very small systems.

In conclusion, we have described the emergence of flexibility in a dense linear systems of equations of N real variable and M equations. This flexibility results from the appearance, for $\alpha < \alpha_c$, of an exponentially large number of states that satisfy the constraints imposed to the system. Our results prove also that for $\alpha = M/N > \alpha_c$, the standard RS scenario holds and the system is not satisfiable, while for $\alpha < \alpha_c$ an exponential number of solutions are present and the symmetry of permutation of the variables is broken. In this case, a fraction m of the variables must be considered free while the rest are fixed by the constraints. Our analytical predictions were tested computing numerically the volume of random polytopes derived from dense system of linear equations showing that the derivation presented provides the value of the characteristic volume of a random polytope. The problem addressed in this paper is stylized and general, extensions of this work would include both the study of the same model on diluted graphs (with different degree distributions) in order to better describe the metabolic networks and a detailed analysis of the Minority Game. In both cases we expect that a scenario similar to the one discussed above holds. Work in these directions is in progress.

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